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ABSTRACT

This study surveyed 29 high schools concerning Japanese language instruction (JLI). A questionnaire focused on five aspects of JLI, including type of textbooks and supplementary teaching materials used; teaching approaches and goals and student achievement; class formation; and ideas for future JLI. Data from 17 high school Japanese language teachers were analyzed. Subjects reported using three writing systems (Japanese only, romanization and Japanese, romanization only) and as many as 11 different types of textbooks. Half of the respondents rated speaking as the most required language skill, followed by listening, reading, and writing. Respondents noted the need for more current textbooks and teaching materials. Discussion focuses on ways to improve Japanese textbooks, the value of using television to teach Japanese language and culture, the use of computers in Japanese language classes, and the gap between high school and university instruction in Japanese. The role of proficiency-oriented methods in JLI and training, certification, and networks for teachers are addressed. (JP)

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Mainland U.S. High School Japanese Language Programs

by

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Abstract

Based on a survey of seventeen mainland high school Japanese language teachers, this study analyzes the classroom situation of Japanese language education in mainland U.S. high schools.

The need for more high school level textbooks is evident as many high schools are using those edited for adult learners. In some cases, teachers are planning materials from scratch without any textbooks. The priority of the four language skills is speaking, listening, reading, then writing. It appears that high school students enjoy learning how to speak first. Proficiency-oriented programs are now on the rise training students to become capable of doing some communicative work using the target language.

However, teacher training to keep up with the growing demand for high school Japanese language programs is not sufficient to send certified teachers to the classrooms. Furthermore, financing high school Japanese language programs has some shortfalls. More money is necessary to support programs. Some cases of special financial arrangements are not the ultimate goal.

The articulation between high school and college Japanese language programs needs improvement. Establishing closer contact between high school teachers and college faculty members is important.

Mainland U.S. high school Japanese teachers are put in a situation where problems arise as the programs grow. Due to the short history of the high school Japanese language education on the mainland and the rapid development of the programs, teachers need to consolidate efforts and try to find timely solutions.

I. Introduction.

A. The Growing U.S.-Japan Relationship.

The need for creating an awareness among American educators about the increasing importance of Japan in today's world was emphasized by the creation of an outreach program by the United States Japan Foundation at Stanford in 1981. By 1987, the program had been developed in 44 states, and at present it is focussed on training "pre-service" undergraduates in addition to "in-service" teachers (Bosworth, 1990).

Many factors contribute to the importance of gaining knowledge about Japan. An increasing number of job opportunities in the U.S. are being provided by Japanese companies. More and more Japanese corporations have been creating subsidiary operations and settling in various parts of the U.S. since the late 1970's. For example, there were about 1,000 Japanese subsidiaries in California in 1988 employing 100,000 people (Frantz, 1989). Also, Japan has been the top foreign investor in U.S. real estate since 1986. And over 20 cases of Japanese acquisitions of U.S. companies took place in 1987 (Frantz, 1989). Consequently, there has been increasing concern in the U.S. about the need to understand the Japanese as business partners, and American interest in Japan in general has been stimulated. In 1987, the largest number of foreign travelers to Japan was from the U.S., a total of 480,000, accounting for 23 percent of all travelers to Japan (Anzai, 1989). Reflecting the social trend, media coverage of Japan increased tremendously during the 1980's.

B. Status of Japanese Language Courses in U.S. High Schools.

With the intensification of close U.S.-Japan relationships, Japanese language education in U.S. high schools has expanded. According to the American Council on the Teaching of Foreign Languages (ACTFL), by 1985 Japanese language teaching in U.S. high schools superseded Russian to become the sixth largest foreign language program with a total enrollment of 8,558.

The number of high schools with Japanese language programs more than tripled from 1986, reaching 312 by 1989 (Shenk, 1989). As of 1990 it is reported by the Association of Teachers of Japanese that the number has now increased to more than 690.

Since most school districts require at least two years to introduce a new curriculum, this rapid growth is surprising. Owing to this quick pace of development, educators are expressing some concern about the need for teaching materials, qualified teachers, and proficiency-oriented instruction (Bond, 1989). The growth of high school Japanese language education is expected to continue as the economic interdependence between Japan and the U.S. increases, creating new jobs and higher levels of investment, and these concerns need to be addressed as soon as possible with appropriate support (Bosworth, 1990).

C. Financing for U.S. High School Japanese Language Courses.

However, it is important to note a controversial point here as evidenced by the following survey, in 2 out of 17 high schools

Japanese language programs have not been introduced through the standard development and implementation of a curriculum. Although the majority of high schools develop and finance curriculum within the local school district, some schools depend on special support.

For example, Wisconsin's Department of Public Instruction initiated the Japan Language and Culture Assistant Program (JALCAP) in 1989. Under this program, public high schools are allowed to have non-paid Japanese specialists as language and culture assistants (Grover, 1989). In the 1989-1990 academic year, there were 11 teachers from Japan serving in the program.

The State of Iowa is promoting an organization called the Iowa-Japan Cultural Alliance, designed to help the local populace understand Japan. Beginning in the fall of 1990, ten native Japanese speakers with language teaching qualifications will be invited from Japan to teach in Iowa secondary schools.

However, the special treatment of Japanese language courses by Wisconsin and Iowa raises a question about the commitment of local school districts to Japanese language instruction. In Wisconsin, unlike other language classes, Japanese classes are funded by an outside organization, JALCAP, and local monies are not used for teaching the Japanese language. And the Iowa-Japan Culture Alliance provides 50 percent financial support for a teacher while each school district pays the other 50 percent. Again the financing is not provided by standard procedure.

However, there have been some encouraging developments under the direction of the Rocky Mountain Region Japan Project.

Between 1986 and 1989, the project combined efforts with 11 school districts in the four-state region of Arizona, Colorado, New Mexico, and Wyoming to design and implement exemplary curricula on Japan. Although the program is not exclusively language instruction, the implementation of such curricula is worthwhile for prospective school districts to refer to.

In private schools, the story is different. Funding is sometimes provided by donors. For example, Japanese language classes in St. Albans School in Washington, D.C. are co-sponsored by the Washington Post and the Japanese Chamber of Commerce. Because private schools do their own fund-raising, donorship can be one way to support a Japanese language program. However, if the need for a Japanese language course is due to the urging of students, private schools should finance the course as a priortized need from tuition monies.

Therefore, given the remarkable growth of Japanese language programs while having some adiministrational problems, the solutions and support necessary are complex. To tackle this difficult theme, research on this topic became important.

II. Research.

To better understand the complex situation of U.S. high school Japanese language instruction on a classroom level in order to present solutions, the writer conducted a survey.

A. Method.

A questionnaire was sent to 29 high schools selected from the 312 schools listed in the December 1989 issue of "Newsletter of the Japanese Language Teachers Network". The distribution was 7 schools out of 160 on the West Coast, 12 out of 92 from the Central, Midwest, and the Southern U.S., and 10 out of 60 on the East Coast. The aim was to cover schools with large programs in many states in order to collect a wide range of information.

The questionnaire focused on the following five aspects of Japanese language instruction.

a) Type of textbooks and supplementary teaching materials used and the reasons for choosing or constructing these materials.

b) Teaching approaches and the reasons for using them.

c) Types of class formation due to the shortage of qualified teachers.

d) Teaching goals and student achievement.

e) Comments and suggestions for the future of Japanese language instruction.

Teachers were asked to answer the questionnaire within 10 days. Two teachers responded that they were either too busy or unable to answer due to limited experience, and second inquiry letters were sent to the remaining unresponding teachers. After seventeen responses were received, teacher certification was verified

by sending another inquiry letter to the administration of each respondent school.

B. Results.

1. Textbooks and Supplementary Teaching Materials.

Textbooks were checked for the writing system used. There were three systems used.

i) *** Japanese writing system (*hiragana*, *katakana*, and *kanji*) only.

ii) ** romanization and Japanese writing system (*hiragana*, *katakana*, and *kanji*) combined.

iii) * romanization only.

Seven out of seventeen use category i), nine use ii), and only four use iii). It was very surprising to find out that as many as eleven different types of textbooks are in use as described in Table 1.

Table 1. Textbooks in Use in U.S. High Schools

	textbook title (author)		no. of school /17
1)	"Learn Japanese" -- I & II = 2 I, II & III = 3 (Young & Nakajima-Okano)	**	4
2)	"Japanese Now" -- I = 1 I, II & III = 2 (Sato, Shishido & Sakihara)	***	2
3)	"Nihongo" (Alfonso)	**	2
4)	"Japanese: The Spoken Language" (Jorden)	*	1
	& "Beginning Japanese" (Jorden)--old version of the above	*	1
5)	"Nihongo Shoho" (Suzuki & Kawase)	***	2
6)	"An Introduction to Modern Japanese" (Mizutani)	**	1
7)	"Active Japanese" (Han)	*	1
8)	"Japanese for Today" (Yoshida)	**	1
9)	"Yokoyamasan no Nihongo" (Yokoyama)	***	1
10)	"Japanese Made Possible" (Takeuchi)	***	1
11)	"NHK Japanese Elementary Course 1st Step" (Tanaka)	*	1

Among the eleven textbooks, three are for college-use being adopted by eight high schools. The most popular textbook in high schools was "Learn Japanese", a collegiate level textbook. It is also important to note that four schools answered using no standard

textbooks but teacher's own creation. This reflects the shortage of appropriate high school Japanese textbooks.

As supplementary teaching materials, the use of videos in classrooms is effective because students can absorb the target language in more realistic situations. However, only two textbooks are currently accompanied by videotapes. On the other hand, cultural videos about Japanese society seem to be widely used as twelve respondents reported using them.

2. Teaching Approaches.

a. Ordering of Four Language Skills.

When asked to rate the four basic language skills; Speaking, Listening, Reading, and Writing, half of respondents rated Speaking as the most required skill, Listening followed as the second, Reading skill was third, and Writing was the last. The stress on Speaking and Listening is worth noting as a move toward conversational Japanese.

b. Types of Speaking and Listening Exercises.

However, the actual classroom methods of instruction of Japanese in high school is at the teacher's discretion. In addition to Audio-lingual Method type drills, various Communicative exercises are used as described in Table 2 as follows.

Table 2. Exercise Examples Employed in Japanese Language Classrooms

Exercises on tapes.	
Transformation.	tenses affirmative/negative
Substitution.	words and phrases of a particular part of speech.
Taking notes of vocabulary from dialogues or stories.	
Particles.	
Dialogue repetition and memorization for familiarization.	
Translation. (English-Japanese, Japanese-English)	
Question and Answer.	between the teacher and students. between the students.
Situational conversation.	between 2 students. in a group of 3 to 4 students. with the whole group. (Explanation in English on a cue card and a dialogue in Japanese.)
Create meaningful sentences from photos.	
Dialogues created by students.	
Skits written and produced by students.	(Sometimes taped on video.)
Conversation with Japanese students.	

c. Coverage of *Hiragana, Katakana,* and *Kanji.*

In developing Japanese Reading and Writing skills, *hiragana*, *katakana*, and *kanji* are crucial since the characters are completely different from the roman alphabet. When textbooks use only romanization, workbooks are used to learn the writing system. And even with textbooks that use only Japanese characters, worksheets and workbooks are used for writing practice. Most schools allocate three to six weeks to learn *hiragana*, and an additional two to six weeks for learning *katakana*.

Concerning the study of kanji, although five schools do not teach *kanji* in the first year, seven schools teach 50 to 70 *kanji*. In the second year, one school still doesn't start teaching *kanji*, while seven reported the introduction of one hundred *kanji*. In the third year, the highest number of *kanji* learned is 275, and the rest fall in the range of 70 to 225. Finally in the fourth year, the most covered is 500 while the least is still 100. This difference of 400 kanji taught by fourth year classes is very large.

However, the purpose of learning *kanji* is to enjoy. The important thing is not how many a student masters but what interesting aspects of *kanji* one discovers. Studying functions of radicals and guessing stroke orders are example exercises a teacher can direct in class. Training students to be able to read menus and public signs is also more important than cramming a large number of *kanji*.

d. Culture Learning.

Since learning a second language is enriched by experiencing the target culture, instruction on culture is important. Teachers add to the textbook content on culture by giving more in-depth knowledge of politics, economics, U.S.-Japan relations, geography, and history.

One tactic used is a "Culture Day" party in which students can enjoy cultural experiences with native speakers, making Japanese crafts, singing songs, cooking Japanese food, and watching T.V. programs and movies. As commented by some teachers, inviting guest speakers is also helpful in familiarizing the students with the Japanese culture.

Leaving classrooms behind and visiting Japanese Consulates, museums, restaurants, and some private tea ceremonies also provide opportunities for students to learn more about the Japanese culture. Six schools utilize this kind of field trip. Having interns from Japan in the classroom on a yearly basis is another culture enrichment activity. One shool has such an internship program available.

Although only one school is conducting an activity having students of Japanese, Chinese, and Korean origins compare each other's values and culture, it is advisable for the sake of multi-cultural literary heritage to help create an in-depth understanding of the Far East.

One school is practicing independent studies on Japanese culture for higher levels of understanding of Japanese culture. These studies are encouraged as outside classroom activities. Students can

receive extra credit by bringing news or information to share with the class.

e. Class Formation.

Among the 17 schools surveyed, two schools offer one-year courses, provide two-years, eight offer three-years, three offer four-years, and two offer five-years. Class size in courses below third year level are small averaging 10 students per class. In third and fourth-year classes, the maximum class size was 36 and the average was 20.

3. Comments and Suggestions for the Future.

The need for more up-to-date textbooks and teaching materials was emphasized. Training students for language competency is also a big issue. Teachers want workshops with the latest information on teaching methods, and they are trying to form networks among themselves to exchange ideas.

Concerning enrollment, a steady growth in Japanese language classes is predicted in spite of the decreasing enrollment in the total U.S. high school population. Also, considering the schools where the Japanese language will be taught, teachers believe that it should not be provided only to schools that can afford it. An effort should be made to broaden the scope of Japanese language education to serve the needs of less affluent schools. By a more widespread promotion of Japanese language programs, it will become possible to improve

the cultural sensitivity and international understanding of many American high school students.

III. Discussion.

A. Development of Teaching Materials.

There are many classroom problems to be solved. Most of the textbooks are at collegiate level and therefore unfit for high school students. By analyzing the teachers' reason for using those textbooks, the following five features come up as the most necessary aspects to be incorporated into future Japanese textbooks for U.S. high schools:

1) Useful and natural dialogues, expressions and skill-building exercises accompanied by skill-using activities leading to functional use.

2) Good and analytical grammar explanation in English to convey the learners of the linguistic structure of Japanese.

3) Training students in written Japanese system from the beginning to eliminate the bad influence of romanization, and early introduction of *kanji* to promote enthusiasm, but not so many as to discourage students.

4) Adequate number of cultural notes, illustrations, and photographs.

5) Clear and easy-to-understand presentation of material.

6) Video accompaniment to grasp more functional aspects of the Japanese language.

B. Availability of Materials.

The availability of various kinds of supplementary teaching materials such as workbooks and quizzes is also a key to the enrichment of instruction.

1. Television Programs.

Since the value of using T.V. programs is to transport students to other worlds and to introduce a variety of subjects to the classroom, teachers can gain some ideas from the following methods (Chira, 1990).

The introduction of some T.V. programs should be encouraged. For weekly coverage of Japan, the CNN's "East Meets West" is recommendable. Students' interest in Japanese society may be stimulated by the concise commentary of the American reporter. Another access to Japan for a classroom can be facilitated by collecting information from "CNN News-room" and "Channel One", the news of the world programs produced especially for the teenage audience. In the area of economics, the segment called 'Tokyo Report' on CNN's "Headline News; Dollars & Sense" should be very rewarding.

For even more direct association with Japan through the T.V. media, another source is SCOLA, which transmits various news programs from all over the world to sponsoring college communities by cable. Prime time news programs from Japan by NHK (Nippon Hoso Kyokai) is also available. Due to the advanced level of language used, the program may be suitable for advanced classes as listening

comprehension practice, but an instructor is necessary to explain the news and conduct discussions following it.

Entertainment programs such as manga animation and family drama programs are also suitable to familiarize high school students with the Japanese language. Excitement and thrills created by those programs will encourage students' understanding.

2. Computers.

The use of computers is another technical aid. But most of high school Japanese language classes do not use computers. It is because computerlabs are not necessarily available in all the schools, and teachers are not familiar with computer software. However since computers have proved very efficient in remedial learning, as stated by Browning, White, Barkin, and Nave of the University of Oregon in their study on high techonology application to special classrooms, more schools should use them as soon as possible (Browning, 1985-86). Repeated practice can aid students' short term memory and provide immediate error correction to compensate for an inability to recognize mistakes, and interfacing the computer with video media allows learning despite any reading difficulties. When the merit of computer assisted learning is applied to average students, the outcome may be even greater. In order to apply computer-assisted instruction in Japanese language classrooms successfully, teachers need workshops, and high schools need grants for computer labs.

There are in fact many areas of Japanese language instruction which can benefit from computer software. For instance, counting,

telling time, giving directions, mastering inflected verb patterns, verbs of being, verbs for giving and receiving, reading *katakana*, reviewing *hiragana*, and learning *kanji*.

C. Gap between High School and University.

The reasons students choose to study Japanese vary. According to the Illinois Univeristy High School Japanese language teacher Mr. Kinoshita, some study it because the language and culture seem interesting. Others take it because it might be beneficial in business career.

It is important to note here the increased focus on foreign language education in the U.S. in both high schools and colleges, as Dr. Dandonoli stated in "Report on Foreign Language Enrollment in Public Secondary Schools, Fall 1985" to ACTFL. Owing to the 1979 report of the Presidential Commission on Foreign Language and Int'l Studies, several states have re-instituted requirements for foreign language study at the high school level and several colleges and universities are again requiring foreign language study for both entrance and graduation. Thus, an increasing number of high school students are taking Japanese as part of the requirement to enter higher education. Even if a university does not asks a student to demonstrate certain proficiency level as a part of degree requirements, the link between high school and collegiate Japanese language programs must be strengthened to better serve those students with high school Japanese education. Having students repeat beginning courses is bad use of time.

Despite all these speculations, the present gap between high school Japanese instruction and that at the universities is unsatisfactory. At the Symposium on Japanese Pedagogy in High Schools and Universities held on April 21, 1989, at the University of Iowa, Professor Miura of the University of Wisconsin pointed out the problems in his presentation "High School Japanese: Problems and Prospects". According to Dr. Miura, students who finish one or two years of Japanese in high schools generally have not been able to skip the first semester Japanese course upon entering a university.

Although there are many intensive Japanese courses giving two to three worth training in universities, they do not build on the high school curricula. To change the situtation, Claire L. Gaudiani's efforts in building alliance between school and university faculty can be considered as one mean. This attempt needs support from administration to first form a steering committee. It is also important to have in mind that postsecondary faculty members do not dominate the committee either in number or in perceived importance. After gathering alliance members, projects such as class demonstration, curriculum exchanges, and review of major conferences of general interest will become possible (Gaudiani, 1985). One of the alliances called "Academic Alliances in Foreign Languages and Literatures" has come to realize how advanced students are likely to be when they arrive on college campus. It is hoped that based on this realization, some necessary steps would be taken quite soon in the area of Japanese language study.

D. Proficiency-oriented Program.

The need to promote Proficiency-oriented methods in foreign language education was first recognized in 1979 and gained popularity in 1985 (Fred, 1988). The new pedagogy emphasizes competency training in Speaking, Listening, Reading, and Writing. This can be effective in forming solid backgrounds for students to handle the target language comfortably in daily communicative situations.

According to ACTFL, the principle of proficiency aims to enable a learner to eventually function in the four basic skills of language like an educated adult.

Professor Makino of the University of Illinois points out that the aim can be actualized by various teaching methods in an eclectic fashion. There are four methods to enhance proficiency (Makino, 1988).

1) Japanese writing system.	No romanization.
2) Read Japanese as Japanese.	No translation.
3) Multi-skill approach.	No concentration on one skill.
4) Creative discourse-level drills.	No mechanical drills.

Thus, it is recommended to blend in the above fundamental features into present instruction methods to gear toward better enhancement of communicative proficiency.

However, it is interesting to note from the survey that the emphasis on both Speaking and Listening is stronger than the

emphasis on Reading and Writing in high school Japanese language instruction. It is probably because Japanese is not taught as a tool to approach Japan both through verbal communication and written materials like in many universities. High school students can enjoy learning to speak Japanese based on good grammatical foundation.

The way the Oral Proficiency Interview (OPI) uses a detailed rating scale in order to give a specific rating to a learner's ability attracts a lot of attention from traditional testing which mainly checked knowledge of grammar and writing ability. By utilizing the principles and techniques developed by ACTFL, a new type of Japanese language instructor in high schools will be able to test communicative ability.

Already in the Montgomery County public school district in Maryland, the communicative competency oriented foreign language program based on ACTFL proficiency guidelines has been mandated. In "Instructional Guide Drafts" of Foreign Language Program of Studies issued by the Department of Academic Skills of Montgomery County Public Schools, lessons are arranged to give students a content/context oriented approach.

For every level of learning of the four-year course, the same content/context themes are provided with different performance requirements. A careful development of linguistic abilities in all four areas; Speaking, Listening, Reading, and Writing, plus emphasis on cultural understanding is implemented.

While working on the new project, Ms. Morman, a Japanese language teacher in the program, admits that her work load has become very heavy because of having to adjust to completely

different methods. In addition to the present project, she has been asked to design Japanese language programs in Georgia and Arkansas. Her busy schedule certainly reflects the strong demand for proficiency-oriented programs in Japanese language instruction in U.S. high schools.

Although these teaching methods can bring up students' proficiency level in a shorter period of time than traditional methods, it is important to note that it is not as short as what is possible with French or Spanish. It is because of the relative difficulty of the Japanese language compared with those languages as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Expected Levels of Speaking Proficiency According to Foreign Service Institute Scale (1-5)

Length of training	Aptitude for Language Learning		
	Minimum	Average	Superior
<French or Spanish>			
8 weeks (240 hr.)	1	1/1+	1+
16 weeks (480 hr.)	1+	2	2+
24 weeks (720 hr.)	2	2+	3
<Japanese>			
16 weeks (480 hr.)	0+	1	1
24 weeks (720 hr.)	1	1+	1+
44 weeks (1320 hr.)	1+	2	2+
80-92 weeks (2400-2760 hr.)	2+	3	3+

Source: Judith E. Liskin-Gasparro. ETS Oral Proficiency Testing Manual. Princeton, N.J.: Educational Testing Service, 1982.

Furthermore, considering the uniqueness of the Japanese writing system, the aquisition of reading and writing skills makes it even more difficult to learn Japanese than European languages.

Therefore, it is necessary for both teachers and students to be patient and make steady efforts. Understanding from administration is also indispensable to run a program successfully.

E. Teacher Training.

For the solid organization of a new curriculum vital for achieving communicative competency, it is necessary to consider the teacher's work load. Teachers cannot be expected to work on curriculum and make teaching materials in addition to preparing for daily instruction. In the session on "Teacher Training in East Asian Languages: Where are We? Where Do We Want to Go?" at the Association for Asian Studies Annual Conference, April 1990, a concern for curriculum development specialists was expressed.

1. Provision of Teaching Certification Programs in Universities.

Among the 17 high school teachers in my survey, 12 were non-native speakers of Japanese and 6 were native. Although teacher's qualifications should not be based on the factors of being a native or non-native speaker, each factor has advantages and disadvantages. Both groups must demonstrate fluency in both Japanese and English in addition to the knowledge of Teaching of Japanese as a Second Language and Linguistics (Samuel, 1988).

In terms of preparing high school teachers of Japanese based on the above criteria, few universities offer Japanese Language majors, although there are 336 colleges in the U.S. with Japanese programs (The Japan Foundation, 1989). As for high school teaching certification, only the University of Hawaii, the Univeristy of Iowa, the University of Wisconsin, and Indiana University are offering such programs. Although the number may be increasing, only few states issue certification.

The shortage of qualified teachers of Japanese language has been a hot issue. There are not enough experienced or qualified people because of the relative short history of development in high schools compared to universities (Miura, 1989).

In Wisconsin, other high school foreign language teachers are being trained to teach Japanese during summer session as well as using Japanese specialists. This program is coordinated by the Department of East Asian Language and Literature of the University of Wisconsin. Also, if the credential of a Japanese specialist in JALCAP meets the state's requirement judging from one's achievement made elsewhere, the person can be qualified.

Another way to combat the problem is by Japanese language T.V. programs provided by Alabama, Washington, and Nebraska. A Japanese language teacher appears on screen in classrooms where there are no hired teachers. Although a teacher on T.V. is not the same as a teacher in a classroom, televised programs compensate for the lack of a classroom teacher. Also programs are low cost for each school while encourages high student participation and renders reinforcing feedback (Kataoka, 1987).

To solve the problem of Japanese language instruction conducted by teachers of other languages, federal support for critical language instruction could add more certification programs for teachers of Japanese in universities. It is also necessary to provide scholarship for university students seeking to obtain certification. Since teachers are paid less than business men, the improvement of teachers' financial status must be realized to avoid having many candidates choose business. Furthermore, the need for teacher trainers is another problem. There is no Ph.D. course to provide them now. As the national need to increase as rapidly as possible the number of Japanese speaking and reading Americans in science and industry and public policy positions intensifies, it is time for federal actions to begin (Lammers, 1988).

Aid to federal support could come from Japanese corporations who are being advised by the Japanese government to invest in overseas education to evade high taxation at home. If the U.S. government can formulate funding for Japanese teacher training by coordinating the funding with Japanese investors, financing could be easily achieved.

At the administration level in education, the Joint National Committee for Languages sponsored a seminar on "Community Leadership in Foreign Language Education," on December 8-9, 1989, in Chicago having Senator Paul Simon and Lieutenant Govenor George H. Ryan of Illinois among the guest speakers (Shenk, 1989). This attempt to form ties with politicians at federal and state levels is encouraging. The seminar focused on foreign language policy at the state and local level, and although there was a session on introducing

Japanese instructional programs in the elementary schools, nothing was presented for high schools.

2. Networks among Teachers.

In order to develop Japanese language programs in U.S. high schools, close interfacing among teachers of Japanese is necessary. Unlike European language teachers, Japanese language teachers must work quite indepen dently because there may be only one, or just a few, teachers of Japanese in some states. Even supportive school administrators and helpful colleagues cannot provide the special kind of support that can only come from other Japanese language teachers who understand firsthand the particular joys and frustrations of teaching Japanese to American youngsters (Bond, 1988). Networking among Japanese language teachers is recommended.

IV. Conclusion.

The Japanese economic success and her deeper involvement with the U.S. are evident. In 1987, the ten largest banks in the world were Japanese, the 18 largest acquisitions by international investors of existing U.S. office towers 1986-1987 were all made by Japanese, and Japanese accounted for 50 percent of U.S. federal securities purchased in 1989. As a result, U.S. society will be increasingly exposed to Japan economically and politically, in the 1990's. Therefore the more high school students familiarize with Japanese the better. As indicated by a response to the survey urging a widening of programs to as many schools as possible, instead of

restricting them only to schools which can afford them, the encouragement of the promotion of Japanese language programs in a greater number of high schools is now a very important subject. Although there are problems in pursuing the goal, they should be solved by all means to contribute to the development of the good U.S.-Japan relationship.

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